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ABSTRACT

Most literature on job loss concentrates on three stages: situation/condition, consequences, and solutions/responses. Very little literature exists on the transition phase of lost jobs. The reasons for involuntary job loss, also known as displacement or dislocation, are many. The displaced worker may experience both psychological effects and physiological changes; the family structure may also be affected. The most obvious impact to the job loser is economic. Currently, three primary groups formulate solutions to the issues of job loss: the government, both state and federal; organized labor; and organizations. Transition is the phase in which displaced persons can move forward to address the situation. However, there is seldom a mechanism for communicating the methods and options to the individual or to help them through the period of adjustment. Beneficial interventions include counseling, medical and psychological services, training about benefits and financial options, career planning, retraining, and advance notice of layoffs. (The 11-page report is followed by 25 abstracts of key literature on the subject of job loss. Each abstract, arranged alphabetically by author(s), consists of author, date, title, source, pagination, and a summary that consists either of purpose, participants, method, results, and discussion or purpose and description only. An attached bibliography lists 110 selections on most aspects of job loss.) (YLB)



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A Job Loss Model for Training and Development: Selected Research Abstracts

Elizabeth Palmer-Spilker Marcia G. Reed

TRAINING & DEVELOPMENT RESEARCH REPORT

Graduate Program in Training & Development
The Ohio State University

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FOREWORD

One of society's negative realities is job loss; unfortunately this phenomenon has been an accepted occurrence much like death and taxes. This has been attributed, in part, to the overreliance on the belief -- "this will never happen to me." Also contributing to this laissez-faire attitude is the perception that not much can be done about it.

This report, "A Job Loss Model for Training and Development: Selected Research Abstracts," contradicts these two notions by: a) clearly pointing out that job loss can be widespread and that it can affect anyone, b) identifying a good deal of research that has been done is this area, and c) helping organizations address the job loss issue with research-based interventions.

Clearly, the number of research abstracts reviewed is a significant contribution to this area of study. With each well-synthesized, they provide a ready source of information which can easily be used by organizations developing in-house programs.

The model itself is both realistic and theoretical in that it presents the actual stages of job loss and incorporates many concepts from the research. It also possesses the flexibility for practical application. This study provides a base for meeting the needs of additional research and practical solutions, which I believe is a very positive start.

Albert E. Bianco, Ph.D. Manager Human Resource Development Nationwide Insurance Companies



3

Introduction

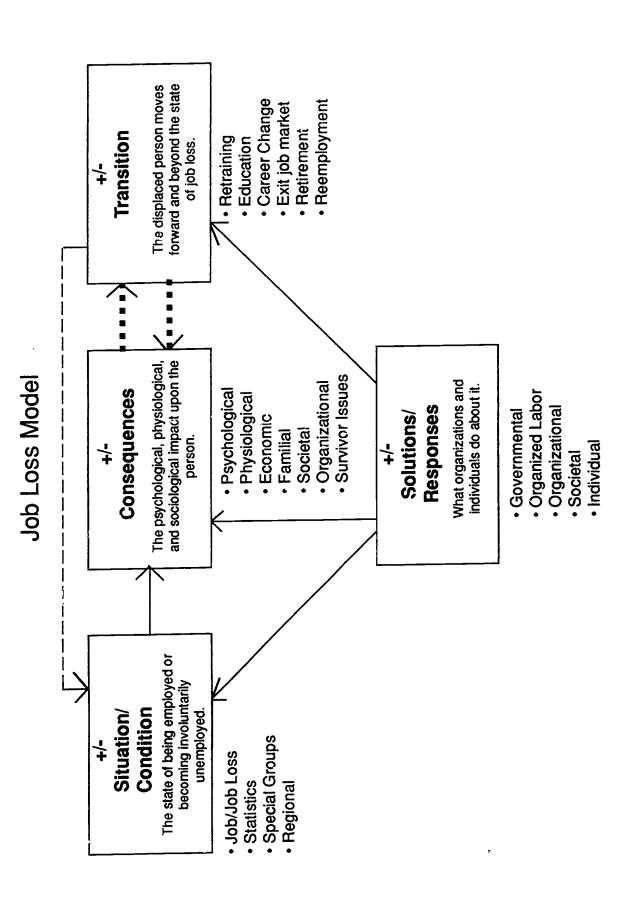
This Training and Development Research Report consists of 25 abstracts of key literature on the subject of job loss. In addition, a listing of relevant literature is included. While the list is not exhaustive, it contains selections on most aspects of job loss including legal issues, economics, displacement, survivor issues, emotional consequences, health problems, outplacement, special groups, age factors, education levels, solutions, training programs, organizational responses, and governmental responses. Our intent was to provide as comprehensive a collection of material as possible for those interested in learning about the phenomenon of job loss.

Our primary interest in researching the subject of job loss lay initially in describing and understanding job loss. As we worked through the literature, we asked many questions about what we could do as training professionals to help smooth the transition for the person mired in the rubble of job loss. Few of our questions had outright or simple answers.

Although the subject of job loss is not new, the trend has shifted somewhat from the time most of the research was completed. No longer are only blue-collar jobs on the line. More middle management and white-collar jobs are in jeopardy because of flatter organizational structures, technological changes, and "quality" initiatives.

What then, does job loss look like? Figure 1 presents a model of job loss. Most of the literature concentrates on three of the four stages: situation/condition; consequences; and solutions/responses. Very little literature exists on the transition phase of lost jobs. Perhaps this is because the number of jobs lost due to involuntary factors are a small percentage of total





Palmer-Spilker, E. (1992)

10

unemployment. While this may be true, there is a very real need of individuals who have lost jobs to find their way through the confusion. Although much of the literature deals with general information, statistics, and macroeconomic issues, our focus is on the individual. To better understand how we can help in transition, we'll use the model as a framework for describing job loss.

Situation/Condition

The reasons for job loss are many: plant closings, elimination of specific jobs, elimination of specific operations within a plant, quality initiatives that restructure organizations, technological advances, shrinking consumer demand, shrinking markets, and the list goes on. All of the situations listed above are causes of involuntary job loss, also known as displacement or dislocation (Condon, 1984).

The typical profile of a job loser has changed over the last twenty years. In the late 60's and early 70's, job losers tended to be employed in the manufacturing, transportation, construction, and public utility industries. The job loser was an adult male, generally white, with a high school education or less. Half of the job losers could expect to find another job within five weeks, with the remainder locating jobs within fifteen weeks. It was also likely that the job loser lived in the Northeast or industrial North Central area of the country (Gilroy, 1973). This profile has changed somewhat.

The new profile is roughly sixty percent male and forty percent female. The job loser is still most likely to be white (87%) and live in the North Central area of the country. However, the industries experiencing the most significant numbers of lost jobs have shifted. Although durable goods production and transportation still rank highest proportionately in lost jobs, job loss is increasingly experienced in retail, services, food processing, and nondurable



goods production. And, the actual numbers for these industries are higher than that of traditionally hard-hit industries such as manufacturing or construction. Additionally, sales, technical, and administrative support jobs show high increases, with more management workers losing jobs (Herz, 1990). The median number of weeks a displaced worker could expect to spend looking for a job increased from five weeks (Gilroy, 1973) to slightly over eight weeks (Herz, 1990). Advance written notice of layoffs lowered the eight weeks to four or five weeks depending on the amount of advance notice. General education levels do appear to be associated with the length of unemployment and earnings after reemployment.

Consequences

Imagine that you are at the peak of your work day when your boss casually stops by to give you your final paycheck saying that the business will be closing its doors tomorrow. After you recover from the wave of dizziness that assails you, the questions come in torrents. "How did this happen?" "Why didn't I see it coming?" "Is this a bad dream?" "What will I tell my spouse?" "What am I going to do?" And the questions continue, as individual as the circumstances in which the job losers find themselves.

The loss of a job ranks high in terms of the stress it produces, in the top 9 of 61 stress factors, just behind the death of a spouse (DeFrank & Ivancevich, 1986). In fact, the loss of a job has been compared to the stages of dying: denial, anger, bargaining, depression, and acceptance. What is common to almost all job losers is shock, worry, fear, and anger (Latack & Dozier, 1986; Swineburne, 1981). The anger may often be debilitating, and some employees may express open hostility about the situation (McKnight, 1991).



What is lost is more than a job or an income. Depending on the level of involvement with their work, the individual may lose friends, structure in their life, a sense of community, and the satisfaction derived from making a contribution (DeFrank & Ivancevich, 1986). The psychological effects vary, resulting in lack of self-esteem and confidence, guilt, a sense of failure, or even relief.

Beyond the psychological effects are the physiological changes which the displaced may experience. Physical well-being suffers, a by-product of stress. Without an income, the individual is less likely to spend money on health matters, especially without health insurance which is often lost as well. Higher incidences of heart disease have been observed among job losers, as well as more complaints of illness (Brenner, 1971; O'Brien & Kabanoff, 1979).

As if the emotional and physical consequences aren't enough, the family structure may be affected. Although being married is likely to provide a buffering effect during short-term unemployment, in long-term jobless situations, these effects diminish. If a previously non-working spouse becomes the breadwinner, marital discord and the breakup of familial relations may occur. A high incidence of divorce and physical abuse is reported among the long-term unemployed (Leana & Ivancevich, 1987).

Survivors of job loss may experience many of the same emotional and physiological reactions as the displaced. In addition, they may experience guilt over not being let go. Their behavior may be affected. Survivors have been known to promote sabotage or become highly committed to the organization, depending on their identification with the employee(s) who left, and their feelings about how the organization handled the situation (Brockner, et al, 1987).



The most obvious impact to the job loser is economic -- the loss of income and benefits. Short-term, the effects are not always severe and may be tempered by savings and unemployment insurance or severance pay. If unemployment is long-term and unemployment compensation is exhausted, sale of assets and loss of social status are likely. In the worst cases, families may end up in soup kitchens or become homeless.

Not all of the individual consequences of displacement are negative. Some dislocated workers find reemployment quickly. When advance written notice of closings is given, some people never become statistics of job loss, and the length of unemployment may be reduced. For others, the loss creates options that would not have been exercised otherwise: early retirement, return to school, self-employment, or a career change to something they have always wanted to do or try (Latack & Dozier, 1986; Swineburne, 1981).

Some workers become discouraged and drop out of the labor market altogether. Statistically, these job losers do not show up on the unemployment lists. They are the hidden unemployed (Buss & Redburn, 1988).

For those who choose to search for a job, the search itself can be an arduous process. It is rigorous, demanding, time-consuming, and emotionally draining. There are many paths in the search which prove fruitless. Even when a person becomes reemployed, the scars can remain, causing problems in the new job (Leana & Feldman, 1990; Braginsky & Braginsky, 1975).

Solutions/Responses

Job loss has become such a phenomenon that agencies and organizations have shaped responses and solutions to help alleviate the problem. However, they have far to go. There are three primary groups



currently formulating solutions to the issues of job loss: the government, both state and federal; organized labor; and organizations.

Responses at the federal level have been in the areas of financial incentives or legislative mandates. This has produced specific programs or bills such as the Job Partnership Training Act (JTPA), the Trade Adjustment Act, the National Alliance of Business, and the National Employment Priorities Act (Jacobs & Jones, 1990; Leana & Ivancevich, 1987; Merriam, 1987). Because specific programs or incentives rarely address the causes, their success is, predictably, limited. Federal and state governments, therefore, have recommended and mandated even more specific measures such as requiring advance notification of plant closings, increased unemployment insurance benefits, and limitations on the termination-at-will doctrine.

Unions have primarily affected the situation through the collective bargaining process. They have been creative in coming up with new contract provisions such as, advance notice of plant closings, union participation in how closings are handled, provisions to insure job security, and retraining after technological advances which make jobs obsolete. They have endeavored to get company data released on plans affecting job security such as financial plans or performance data which would allow employees to plan. Additionally, they have requested and participated in organizing outplacement efforts (Batt, 1983; Mills, 1983; Jacobs & Jones, 1990; Leana & Ivancevich, 1987).

The solutions provided by organizations have offered still additional ways to combat the problem, without really addressing causality. Some of these are, again, advance notification, employee planning, retraining, outplacement, and financial measures such as severance or early retirement inducements (Addison & Portugal, 1987; Hanson, 1982; Latack & Dozier, 1986; Morin, 1977; Schlossberg & Leibowitz. 1980; Steinweg, 1990).



Transition

This is the phase in which displaced persons can move forward to address the situation in which they find themselves. There are many ways in which displaced workers can progress beyond the jobless situation. However, there is seldom a mechanism for communicating the methods and options to the individual, or to help them through the period of adjustment. To determine where interventions might be most beneficial, it may be useful to return to the consequences of job loss.

Make counseling by certified professionals available to help displaced workers through the psychological effects of job loss. When job loss is a function of restructuring rather than closing, create support groups within the organization using formerly displaced workers who navigated the seas of job loss. Provide job search skill training, including resume-writing, interviewing skills, self-assessment tools, and access to networks within the organization. Encourage community support groups and job clubs, or other related external sources of help (Petrini, 1989). Provide counseling for the families of job losers to help them understand the effects upon their loved ones (McKnight, 1991).

Realize that men and women generally approach job loss from different perspectives. Men are problem-focused, and women are symptom-focused (Leana & Feldman, 1991); suggesting a difference in counseling approaches. A balanced approach may actually work better for job losers.

To combat the physiological effects of job loss, have qualified medical and psychological personnel available to deal with the individuals' stress and other physical symptoms. Include both those who are dislocated and the survivors who may suffer psychological problems as well. Provide continuation of medical benefits at reduced or no cost to those who have been displaced.



Provide training about benefits and financial options which are available to the person. This includes information about budgeting severance pay, availability of retirement benefits, pensions (whether company-provided or 401K or similar programs), obtaining unemployment insurance, and realistic expectations about reemployment both internally and externally.

There are also actions employers can take prior to job loss (or before the danger of job loss presents itself). Develop and implement career planning (Hanson,1982; Latack & Dozier, 1986), which includes self-assessment, interviewing skills, resumé-writing workshops, job search skills, networking, organizational reality training, mentoring, and other related programs. It is much easier to teach these skills when survival and unemployment are not issues, than to wait until the employee is dealing with the psychological impacts of job loss.

Organizations should also recognize that keeping an employee, rather than recruiting and training a new one, is a cost-effective investment in the company's future. Consider retraining employees whose skills no longer match company needs, with skills that you do need. It is likely that the employee already knows and understands the culture of the business. Try to integrate their skills and knowledge. Don't provide retraining for the sake of retraining. Make sure there is a specific job for which an employee is retrained. Also consider basic skill training for those who need it, including literacy and math skills.

Provide advance notice of layoffs as early as possible (Fedrau, 1984).

This may even eliminate the need for layoffs, because some people will find jobs before layoffs would occur. Advance notice may also result in employee wage and benefit concessions which might keep company doors open. Provide



inducements for early retirement where possible, then move qualified employees into positions to make room for others. Consider layoffs a last resort to cost-cutting.

It is important to note that none of these interventions can stand alone to help the dislocated worker. They must be integrated with the organization's strategic goals. They must be communicated and available to all employees — even those who may currently be employed. This may help foster survivors' commitment to the organization (Brockner, et al, 1987; Rice & Dreilinger, 1991; Krackhardt & Porter, 1985).

The Need for Further Study

Most of the literature suggests areas for further study. The focus is largely aggregate in nature. Because of our interest in the individual, we've provided some of our own thoughts about the need for study. More study is needed regard individuals. This could be done through case studies or longitudinal studies to examine specific coping strategies. This might provide a more comprehensive framework for counseling displaced workers.

In trying to understand how best to help the dislocated worker, it would be helpful to know how other displaced workers have made the transition. In other words, what effect does a previous job loss experience have on a second experience and the ensuing job search? Knowing the costs associated with recruiting, training, retaining, and terminating an employee; and whether these costs could be significantly reduced by retraining or integration efforts would help employers understand the benefits of making investments in their current personnel. Also beneficial would be a determination of whether employers that



use layoffs as a short-term expense reduction measure actually save long-run costs. Extensive examination of companies and dislocated workers that successfully navigate the experiences of job loss may also provide some answers to how we can help individuals through the transition phase of job loss.







Addison, J. T., & Portugal, P. (1987). The effect of advance notification of plant closings on unemployment. <u>Industrial and Labor Relations Review</u>, <u>41</u>(1), 3-16.

Purpose To study the role of advance notification in mitigating unemployment.

Participants The sample consisted of 1965 displaced workers, 1451 of whom were reemployed and were unemployed for less than 99 weeks.

The authors used data from the 1984 Displaced Worker Survey which was conducted as a supplement to the CPS conducted by the U. S. Department of Labor. They model the determinants of time without work following job displacement caused specifically by plant shutdowns or relocations between 1979 and 1984. The format of the survey did not allow the distinction between expectation of layoff and actual advance notifications (both situations were included as "notification").

Advance notification is found to be strongly negatively related to the duration of unemployment. Advance notification reduces the duration of unemployment by 27.5%. Increased schooling also significantly lowers the duration of employment. Experience had an insignificant effect. Relocation is associated with significantly longer duration of unemployment due to additional search and information investments. The effects of gender and tenure were insignificant. Married and white job losers had shorter durations of unemployment. The major finding of this study is that advance notification does indeed have the effect of reducing unemployment associated with plant closings. This is largely contributed to by the number of "early leavers" following notice.

Discussion This study supports the findings of a previous study by Folbre, Leighton, and Roderick (1984). Both studies suggest advance notification does have an effect of reducing the unemployment associated with plant closings.

Batt, W. L. (July-August, 1983). Canada's good example with displaced workers. Harvard Business Review, 6-22.

Purpose

To describe Canadian and other countries' experiences with plant closings, to compare their experiences with what happens in the United States, and to propose a plant closing model containing nine of the best features of these experiences.

Description Canadian Experiences. By law, Canadian companies must give advance notice when they close a plant. This gives Canada's Manpower Consultation Service time to put a remedial plan in action. In its advisory capacity, this service helps the closing company, union, and workers design and operate a joint effort to place workers in other jobs before the gates close. During the transition, this service offers, as needed, relocation assistance, retraining, job search assistance, and major benefits such as health insurance.

> Other Countries' Experiences. Japan, Sweden, England, Germany, and other Western European countries, unlike the United States, have standard procedures for dealing with plant closings and permanent layoffs. Their programs emphasize reemployment and retraining rather than financia unemployment support. For example, the Financial Labor Market Board in Sweden, in one plant closing in 1976, worked with the closing company, the union, and community leaders to recruit nine small businesses to locate in the closing company's building. All of the closing company's workers performed the work to rehabilitate the buildings and rebuild the roads required to meet the needs of the new companies. These workers were subsequently employed by the new companies. The RLMB subsidized 75% of the wages in this three-year transition period. The workers were retrained as needed.

> The United States' Experiences. Plant closing legislation is strongly resisted in the United States. A cooperative labor-management committee approach and private-sector funds are necessary to successfully improve plant closing practices. Overall, American companies do not use practices required to prevent extensive trauma when plants shut down. However, companies like Dana Corporation, Brown and Williamson, and International Silver provide examples of improved plant closing practices that speed the transition to new jobs.

> Model Program. When helping displaced workers to find new jobs, a financial safety net and major benefits such as health insurance are crucial. The author suggests nine additional features of a plant closing model: advance notice, joint labor-management outplacement committees, job search training, job clubs, aggressive job development, skill training, qualified company personnel to help out, third parties, and industrial development.

Brockner, J., Grover, S., Reed, T., DeWitt, R., & O'Malley, M. (1987). Survivors' reactions to layoffs: We get by with a little help for our friends. Administrative Science Quarterly, 32, 526-541.

Purpose

To investigate the effects of layoff survivors' prior identification with and the organization's compensation to those laid off. Two studies--a laboratory study and a field study--were used to study these effects.

Participants Participants in the laboratory study were 132 undergraduates who volunteered for the experiment in return for \$5 and an entry in a \$75 raffle. Participants in the field study were 504 predominantly female employees of a recently closed chain of retail stores.

Method

In the laboratory study, two independent variables, layoff conditions and identification, were simulated and manipulated. The dependent variable was work performance. Attitude surveys were used and manipulated to achieve levels of identification. Layoff conditions were: being cut from the experiment with compensation, being cut from the experiment without compensation, and not being cut. Proof reading was the task measured for performance.

In the field study, survey packets were given to and distributed by each store manager. Each packet included a letter from the researcher, a letter from a top manager, a survey for the store manager, a survey for each employee, and a postage-paid return envelope for each participant. Follow-up letters were sent to encourage participation. The final response rate was 31.5 %. The survey measured the independent variables of identification and perception of layoff compensation and the dependent variable, organizational commitment.

Results

In the laboratory study, uncompensated layoff was perceived as less fair than compensated layoff which, in turn, was perceived as less fair than the no layoff condition. Performance data was highly significantly less in the highidentification/uncompensated-layoff condition.

In the field study, the greatest decrease in organizational commitment was reported by those who strongly identified with laidoff employees. Identification and compensation variables jointly combined to predict commitment. Decrease in commitment was greatest with high identification/low-compensation.

Discussion

Layoffs may have a negative, positive, or no effect on survivors. Factors influencing a survivor's reaction were their level of identification with the terminated employee and their perception of how fairly the organization handled the termination. The survivor's reaction may be to distance himself either from the "victim" or from the organization. The most negative reaction comes from a survivor who has a high identification with the victim and a strong



sense of injustice on the part of the organization. In determining whether the victim was treated fairly, survivors will consider the following issues; were the layoffs legitimate, were the victims informed in a fair manner, how was the decision made, and were the victims fairly compensated. Survivors want to see commitment on the part of the organization to its employees (even terminated employees) to give commitment in return to the organization.



Condon, M. (1984). The ins and outs of displacement. Training and Development Journal. February, 60-65.

Purpose

To define and describe job displacement and its causes, cite underlying problems associated with displacement, review what is being done to combat it, and suggest possible solutions.

Description Job displacement is the elimination of a job without regard to the employer, while employment displacement is the elimination of a job of a given employer. Reasons given for displacement are labor-saving technology, plant closings, mass layoffs, shifts in consumer demands, and other economic factors. The percentage of job displacement is small compared to total unemployment, although it has been highly visible. Export of U.S. manufacturing jobs to foreign countries has contributed to the visibility of this issue, as well as the shrinking domestic labor market for certain types of manufacturing industries.

> Although the total number of manufacturing jobs has not declined in ten years, the total proportion has changed because of the dramatic increase in service sector jobs. This suggests that displacement is not a major problem. but those observing regional or industry-specific displacement disagree. It is difficult to overcome because of the difficulty of relocation and the bleak outlook for jobs in the given region or industry.

What happens to displaced workers? Most have stable work histories, and family and community attachments which buffer the effects. The long-term unemployed, however, do tend to suffer more from physical, psychological, and economic distress. Those with less education and skills, and who are older or have high-seniority tend to have more difficulty locating new employment than prime-age white males. This is also true for minorities and women.

Information about displacement indicates that the importance of the issue lies not in the numbers of the displaced or the effects upon them, but in the fundamental problems about the future of our economic work and value systems that it suggests. These problems include salary-polarized occupations, employment security, more or fewer jobs overall, and unprecedented change in the structure of work and the economy.

Polarization of high-wage/high-skill and low-wage/low-skill jobs is expected by some, suggesting the need for retraining. Most experts believe, however, that retraining is not the answer because it does not carry a specific job opportunity with it.



What then, is the answer? Sweden makes private employment agencies illegal and requires by law, posting of all job vacancies with a public labor market exchange. The Swedish Labor Market Board is well-funded, and provides training at government facilities, on-the-job-training by employers, help with job searches, relocation assistance, wage subsidies, and other benefits to help people stay employed or become employed.

The French have a national training system which requires employers to participate with an annual contribution or a payroll tax if the contribution is not made. This encourages <u>all</u> employers to offer training in transferable skills.

Canada provides temporary and immediate help for plant shutdowns and mass layoffs or other employment crises. Organized labor and employers are included in the implementation of solutions.

In the US, the Job Training Partnership Act (JTPA) is designed to help the displaced by providing job search assistance, retraining and education, and labor market information. Critics indicate the program falls short of delivering what is required because of a lack of clear reporting and program quality.

Strategies

- Advance notice of plant closings.
- Job clubs
- Employer contacts with suppliers
- Skill retraining (appropriate only for some)
- Outside consultants
- Industrial development options

Conclusion

The charge of "facilitating reemployment" belongs to labor, management, education, and public services. All these groups must work together to promote effective, coordinated responses and preventive measures toward an employed work force.



Cornfield, D.B. (1983). Chances of layoff in a corportion: A case study. Administrative Science Quarterly, 28, 503-520

Purpose

To develop a sociological explanation of unequal chances of layoff that incorporates structural, procedural, and individual determinants. Layoff is defined as a temporary or permanent termination of an employee form the payroll of an organization, which results from a decline in labor demand. Lavoffs may be involuntary or from incentives provided for voluntary resignations.

Participants The 2500-member workforce of the Emco corporation (pseydonym), a telecommunications services company. Of that workforce, 270 employees were laid off.

Method

Over 100 in-depth interviews were conducted with differing levels of employees. Statistical data was gathered from personnel files. Demographic, socioeconomic and job-related data were collected from all employees for comparison.

Four types of independent variables were used to predict the chance of layoff: structural variables, seniority variables, employee variables, and geographic variables. The geographic variables were used to control the effect of regional variation in labor demand.

Results

The findings suggest that unequal chances of layoff derive from the independent effects of structural, procedural, and employee variables in a twostep layoff process. Indirect labor was less likely to be laid off during declines in demand than direct labor.

Voluntary layoffs were positively associated with company seniority and age; and negatively associated with income, education, and race.

Discussion

The two-step approach attributes unequal chances of layoff within an organization to the organizational constraints, decision-making structure, personnel procedures, and individual characteristics.

Division of labor is the most likely predictor of chances of layoff. The trend in declining unionization may reduce the universalistic criteria used to lay off employees.



DeFrank, R. S., & Ivancevich, J. M. (1986). Job loss: An individual level review and model. <u>Journal of Vocational Behavior</u>, 28, 1-20.

Purpose To review diverse empirical job loss research, to provide a conceptual model of job loss effects, and to suggest research propositions.

Description Research Review. A review of job loss research highlights a research deficiency in the individual level perspective of job loss. Empirical job loss research has been conducted by behavioral, medical, and social science investigators. The authors focus on individual physical health, psychological, and related behavioral effects.

Job Loss Effects Model. The authors' model suggests a number of risk factors for job loss; immediate impact on job losers and job survivors; personal, social, economic, and job-related variables that may moderate the effects of job loss; perception of job loss as a stressor; problem-focused and emotion-focused coping processes; length of unemployment; and emotional, behavioral, social, physical, job-related, and psychological effects.

Research Propositions. The authors suggest research propositions regarding job survivors, moderating variables, and social support variables. In general, they point out the need for multidisciplinary and longitudinal research.



Gilroy, C.L. (1973). Job losers, leavers, and entrants: traits and trends. <u>Monthly Labor</u>
<u>Review</u>. August, 3-15

Purpose To classify the type of unemployment and provide a demographic profile of the unemployed.

Description

Traditionally defined, unemployment has been divided into four types: personal, cyclical, structural, and frictional. A new classification system defines the unemployment status of the worker in terms of whether he/she has:

1) lost his/her job (job loser); 2) quit his/her job (job leaver); 3) reentered the labor force after a period of absence (reentrant); or 4) is looking for his/her first job (new entrant).

Age and Sex: Sixty percent of the unemployed in 1970 were adult men. Women, who were more likely than men to become unemployed due to reentry into the job market, accounted for 40% of unemployment. Nearly two-thirds of the 1.7 million unemployed heads of families in 1972 had lost their jobs through no fault of their own.

Race: The unemployment rate for blacks* has been traditionally twice as high as whites. A slightly greater proportion of unemployed whites than blacks have lost their last job and, a greater percentage of black unemployment was attributable to initial entry or reentry into the labor market.

Education Level: Those with substantial amounts of education are less likely to become unemployed, particularly through job loss, than those with less education.

Occupation and Industry: Operatives and nonfarm laborers, craftsmen and kindred workers have higher incidences of job loss than white collar and service occupations. Job losers were predominant among those unemployed by the construction, transportation, and public utilities industries.

<u>Duration</u>: Half of the unemployed were unemployed for less than 5 weeks. Further, only one-fifth remained unemployed 15 weeks or more. Job losers generally experience longer periods of unemploy ment than job leavers and entrants; and that trend continued upward -- rising from 40-55 percent for those unemployed for more than 4 weeks.

<u>Summary</u>: Although most of the unemployed are considered to have lost jobs, the fact is that less than half of the jobless total (43%) had lost their jobs. Job losers do account for the greatest percentage of unemployed adult men, while women, teenagers, and other entrants and job leavers make up the bulk of the remaining unemployed.



Gottschalk, P., & Maloney, T., (1985). Involuntary terminations, unemployment and job matching: a test of job search theory. <u>Journal of Labor Economics</u>, 3(2), 109-123.

Purpose To predict the impact of the type of termination and the unemployment experience on the successful transition to a new job (whether the new job is preferable to the old).

Participants A sample of 2,657 male head of households was obtained using the PSID (Michigan Panel Study of Income Dynamics). The observation period was 1978 and 1979, chosen because it did not include a major recession. Of the sample, 2,173 had the same job in both years, 484 left the job they had in the first year of the study. At the end of the survey period, 71 of the 484 remained unemployed.

Method

The researchers used estimated bivariate probit equations on the sample of all those who left the job they held in the first year of the survey period. The selection equation predicts whether they completed the job search by the end of the period, and the primary equation predicts whether they were better off in the new job.

The researchers analyzed the effects of observed behavioral characteristics of those who moved to new jobs, as opposed analyzing randomly selected individuals.

The results indicated that successful job transition was influenced by the type of termination, but not by the experience of unemployment. Involuntary termination reduced the probability of making a successful transition. However, the unemployed were as likely to make a successful transition as those who looked for work while still employed. The following observations were made:

- Involuntary terminations made up a substantial number (29%) of the terminations.
- For those who quit, a large amount of search (63%) occurred on the job.
- Involuntary terminations do not always result in unemployment (24% received either formal or informal notification, allowing time for search).
- 78% of the sample reported being better off at the end of the survey.

The study suggests that the impact on the job search is adversely affected by involuntary termination and not the unemployment experience itself. The unemployed are as likely to transition successfully to a better job as those who search for a job while still employed. The researchers believe that the difference between involuntary termination and unemployment is important. And, although they are frequently experienced by the same person, they are conceptually separate phenomena.

Results

Page 22

Hanson, M. C., (1982). Career/life planning workshops as career services in organizations -- are they working?., <u>Training & Development Journal</u>. February. 58-63.

Purpose To discuss the impact of career/life planning workshops in an organizational context.

Description The Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory (LLNL) program is the primary focus of the article LLNL has had a Career Life Planning Worksl op since 1975. The program objective is to encourage employees to assume responsibility for their own career growth and/or work experience. The program consists of two major sections. They are:

- Orientation to career/life planning -- which concentrates on why areer planning is important and explains the format of the program. It also gives participants an opportunity to voice their expectations about the program, and helps them form realistic expectations.
- Personal assessment and planning strategy workshops -- which involves 18-25 participants from different organizational levels and occupations. It helps them see that others have the same concerns. It also helps them assess their skills, strengths, and developmental needs, using assessment tools such as the Strong-Campbell Interest Inventory, Work Values Inventory, and System for Identifying Motivated Abilities (SIMA). The focus then shifts to what the individual can do to change their situation and how to do it using a process of constructive coping.

Evaluation of program impact is provided by the participants and their supervisors in follow up assessments. Pre- and post-testing of participants is done using the Career Adjustment Inventory. Participant evaluation is also completed at the end of training.

Supervisors reported results included significant improvements in the quality and quantity of work, morale and attitude, and peer and supervisory communication. Participants reported increases in:

- interests, values, goals;
- · acceptance of personal responsibility;
- awareness of choices;
- enthusiasm:
- · communication.

Overall, the results reported indicate that the program gave participants career control.



Results of a career/life planning program at Syntex Corporation resulted in a full-time career-development specialist who has responsibility for corporate career development. Crocker National Bank reported increases in productivity and job satisfaction, as well as lower turnover rates, after a similar program was implemented.

Summary

Career/life planning workshops sponsored by employers on company time are catching on. The optimal results of the these programs are experienced when the efforts are well-planned and managed, staffed with competent professionals, and integrated into the whole career development system of the organization. Management support and involvement are two key ingredients and can help provide insight and stimulation to employees in planning their own careers and development.



Herz, D.E. (1990). Worker displacement in a period of rapid job expansion: 1983-87. Monthly Labor Review. May, 21-33

Purpose To describe displacement during a period of economic expansion and compare it with previous periods of recession.

Description Ther period from January 1983 to January 1988 was one in which the number of persons with jobs expanded by 15 million. That period also saw a decline the number of people losing jbos, from 5.1 million in the period 1979-1983, to 4.6 million.

Among the displaced during this period, reemployment was up and the proportion of unemployed was down across all race and sex groups. Of those losing jobs, one-third had tenure in the lost job of 3-4 years, one-third had tenure of 5-9 years, and the remaining third had 10 years or more.

By industry, the numbers of lost jobs were:

Goods Producing Industries:

Machine manufacturing	300,000
Electrical Equipment	200,000
 Transportation Equipment 	200,000
Fabricated Metals	160,000

Nondurable Goods:

 Food Processing 	130,000
Apparel	130,000

Service Producing Industries:

•	Retail	/00,000
•	Services	575,000

Although mining, construction, and manufacturing provided only one-fourth of total employment, these industries accounted for more than half of the displaced workers during this period. Factory workers continued to be the most likely to lose jobs. The industry reporting the highest increase in lost jobs was technical, sales and administrative support. Reemployment rates were greatest for service-producing jobs and those normally requiring high skill levels.

Geographic displacement was highest in the East North Central region which includes Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Ohio, and Wisconsin. But, it was far below the displacement figures for the previous period. Plant closings and companies ceasing operations were the most common reasons for job loss during the period. Six of every 10 workers were displaced for these reasons. The other major reasons were slack work and elimination of positions or shifts.



The median number of weeks without work was 8.3. This number was significantly reduced to 4-5 weeks by 1-2 months advance written notice of layoffs. Unemployment insurance was received by 6 of 10 workers, with half exhausting their benefits. Most (75%) also lost health insurance benefits as a result of job loss.

Earnings from reemployment varied by industry, but acress the board 56% of the reemployed had wages higher than or equal to their pre-job loss earnings; 13.5% had lower earnings but were within 20% of their previous earnings, and 30.4% had earnings 20% or more below previous earnings.

<u>Summary</u>: Displacement was down, reemployment up, although the demographic profile was similar to the previous period. Goods-producing jobs were still most likely to disappear, but greater increases were reported in nondurable goods and service industries.

Jacobs, R. L., & Jones, M. J. (1990). Job loss and dislocated workers: Description and opportunities for HRD Practice and Research. Human Resource Development Quarterly, 1(3), 251-262.

Purpose

To describe the differing effects of job loss on managers and blue-collar workers; the responses of governmental agencies, organizations, and unions; the effectiveness of outplacement programs; and opportunities to apply such information to HRD practice and research.

Description Effects of Job Loss. While job loss affects each person differently, several individual and structural variables have emerged that appear to affect the adverse effects of job loss on individuals. Individual variables include: age, education, number of transferable skills, and overall ability to recover from a major life change. Structural variables include: the manner in which the person was informed, the amount of advance warning provided, the degree of family support, and the availability of structured job-search activities.

> Job loss effects include: financial decline, psychological problems, criminal or life-threatening behavior, and family breakups and divorce. According to research on these issues, managers and professionals appear better able to recover from job loss than blue-collar workers if support to bolster their egos is provided. Blue-collar workers seem inherently less adaptable to recovering from the trauma of job loss. In the last decade, job loss has affected blue-collar workers more than white-collar workers.

Responses to Job Loss. Responses involving federal programs include the Job Training Partnership Act (JTPA) and the Trade Adjustment Assistance (TAA) Act. Responses by organizations include: severance allotments, early retirement incentives, and outplacement programs. Responses by labor unions include: acting as the primary information source of JTPA and TAA benefits and programs, participating in joint company-union planning, and providing outplacement programs.

Effectiveness of Outplacement Programs. Organizational benefits include: savings of human resource funds, improved image, improved labor relations with survivors, and reduced legal liabilities. Benefits to the individual are reemployment which occurs more quickly and at a higher average salary than nonparticipants. Outplacement programs are often characterized by early intervention strategies, a set of goals, and a program design.

Opportunities for HRD. HRD professionals need to conduct additional research and apply to the workplace some strategic planning models related to job loss and organizational changes, as well as suggest improvements to outplacement programs.

Kinicki, A. J., (1989). Predicting occupational role choices after involuntary job loss. <u>Journal</u> of Vocational Behavior, 35, p. 204-218

Purpose To test displaced workers' choices to pursue a work role or non-work role; and to investigate what causes workers' expectancies about securing reemployment.

Participants A longitudinal study of 126 employees of a Southwest manufacturing firm was performed. The sample consisted of 55% of employees who had not yet experienced layoffs from the plant closing. At the time of the survey, 355 employees had already been laid off. Participant ages ranged from 27 to 60 years of age, with the average age being 51 years. Ninety-five percent were male, 91% were married, and 70% were Caucasian. Thirty-nine percent had not graduated from high school, 34% were high graduates, 16% had some college, and 11% had a college degree.

One month prior to the layoff, a survey was given to interested employees during company hours. Confidentiality of responses was guaranteed, and participants were asked to identify themselves in order to match subsequent responses. A second survey was mailed 18 months after the first survey. This timing was chosen because all income assistance ended at that point. Eightyone participants responded to the second survey -- a 64% response rate.

Respondents were asked to choose the 8 most important outcomes from a list of 26, containing work and non-work choices. Participants were also asked to rate their chances of obtaining each of the outcomes by getting another job. The rating scale was a 5-point Likert-type scale with opposite responses (e.g., 1, definitely will not result; 5, definitely will result). Expectancy of getting another job was assessed using a 5-point scale indicating the numerical probability (e.g., 1 = no chance, 5 = 100% chance). Non-work role choices were given as alternatives to seeking re-employment. Participants were asked to give the 8 most important outcomes associated with a non-work role (from the original list of 26) and again rate the chances of reaching the outcome via the non-work role chosen.

The Behavioral Choice Model correctly predicted actual behavioral/role choice 80% of the time. The expectancy of obtaining a job was significantly inversely related with age and positively with education, self-esteem, and anticipation of losing one's job. Protestant work ethic was not associated with the expectancy of obtaining a job -- this was contrary to the prediction.

Discussion The study pursued two objectives: 1) conduct a within-person test of expectancy theory predictions about displaced workers' decisions to pursue either a work or nonwork role, and 2) investigate the determinants of displaced workers' expectancies for obtaining another job.

Method

Results

Regarding the first objective, the behavioral choice model significantly predicted the behavioral intention to look for another job, self-reported effort to obtain a job, and actual behavior/role choice. It also displayed incremental validity by increasing the number of correct predictions by 25% over that expected by random selection. These results are consistent with the earlier results of other research efforts, and extend the generalizability of expectancy theory because they are based on a sample of nonexempt industrial workers, a longitudinal design, and unique role alternatives.

Two possible explanations for the hit rates being greater than previous studies were: 1) the financial urgency of displacement along with the psychological effects of job loss caused respondents to make earnest evaluations, and 2) the respondents had inducements to pursue nonwork role alternatives.

Further research is suggested to determine factors that reduce displaced workers' chances of becoming re-employed.

In the second objective, age, education, self-esteem, and anticipation about the likelihood of losing a job were significantly related to the expectancy of obtaining another job. The lowest motivation was among those who were older, less educated, had low self-esteem, or were naive about being laid off. Age and education were the most significant predictors of this.

Results also imply that organizations should provide advance notification of layoffs in order to positively affect the expectation of finding a new job.

Two limitations suggested by the researcher are noted. First, the sample was composed of a majority male, married, and average age 51 years, so generalizability may be limited. Second, the time lag, 18 months, may not have been the most appropriate and may impact role choice decisions.



Latack, J. C., & Dozier, J. B. (1986). After the ax falls: Job loss as a career transition. Academy of Management Review, 11(2), 375-392.

Purpose To propose a model showing factors which may generate career growth from job loss, to recommend organizational strategies to manage career transition, and to recommend research directions.

Description

Career Growth from Job Loss Model. A career often provides a person with growth and psychological success. A job loss removes the arena within which these work-role successes can be achieved. A job loss may have a greater effect on a professional person because work provides a larger sense of identity to a professional person. Some negative effects of a job loss include stress, anxiety, depression, lower self-esteem, and a lessened level of satisfaction with life. Job loss can result in uncertainty, lower commitment, and cynicism that carry over into the next job.

Positive effects, however, can result from job loss: career growth, new and more opportunities for psychological success, and personal or professional profit. Several factors can impact how one relates to job loss. Individual factors include one's overall satisfaction with the lost job, age and life stage, and level of activity after the job loss. Environmental factors include one's financial resources and social support system. The manner in which the termination is handled, resolution of grief and anger, and the duration of the unemployment will also have an effect.

<u>Organizational Strategies</u>. Recommendations focus on organizational policies regarding the termination decision, severance benefits, outplacement programs, training programs, career development programs, and performance appraisal.

Research Directions. Studies are needed to test the effects of each career growth factor identified in the Career Growth from Job Loss Model. Sampling and data collection suggestions are: comparing those involuntarily terminated to those voluntarily terminated, specifying reasons for involuntary termination, comparing those who participate in outplacement or retraining programs to those who do not, and studying professional women.



Leana, C. R., & Feldman, D. C. (1990). Individual responses to job loss: Empirical findings from two field studies. <u>Human Relations</u>, <u>43</u>, 1155-1181.

Purpose To examine the reactions, coping strategies, adjustment, and demographic variables of individuals experiencing job loss.

Participants Participants were from two geographic regions: Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, and Brevard County, Florida. The Pennsylvania sample consisted of 198 predominantly white, male, industrial workers who lost their jobs due to a plant closing. The Florida sample consisted of 163 employees laid off by the Kennedy Space Center or related defense contractors.

Method A questionnaire packet containing a questionnaire, a cover letter, and a postage-paid return envelope was mailed to participants in both groups. The questionnaire contained items assessing: job loss characteristics, career attachment, perceptual reaction, emotional reaction, physiological reaction, coping strategies, life satisfaction, job re-attainment, personality measures, and demographic and corporate assistance variables.

Permanent layoff status, financial distress, and attachment to the previous job were significantly related to negative reactions to job loss. While for coping strategies no common predictors were found between samples, perceptual reactions of high intensity and job loss reversibility were associated with the problem-focused strategies of more job search behavior, retraining, and relocation. While inconsistent results were found regarding corporate assistance programs and the length of time unemployed, outplacement and advance notification showed positive effects for the Florida sample. Gender and educational level correlated with some perceptual, emotional, and physiological reactions. Age was associated with re-employment prospects in the Pennsylvania sample.

Discussion The significant impact of financial distress and attachment to previous job support Hartley and Fryer's (1986) and Jahoda's (1982, 1986) research contentions. The nonsignificant results for corporate assistance programs may be limited by the small proportion of the sample being offered assistance and by the lack of measures of quality or extent of assistance. The authors encourage further research on corporate assistance program results, individual coping strategies, and long-term consequences of job loss.

Leana, C. R., & Feldman, D. C. (1991). Gender differences in responses to unemployment. <u>Journal of Vocational Behavior</u>, <u>38</u>, 65-77.

Purpose To compare how women and men perceived, coped with, and reacted to job loss.

Participants The sample of laid-off white-collar employees of the Kennedy Space Center and related defense contractors, consisted of 63 women and 904 men.

Method Questionnaire packets were mailed to employees listed as recently laid off and informed about a placement service set up at a local community college. Each packet contained a questionnaire, cover letter from a community college administrator, and a postage-paid return envelope. The response rate was 36 %. This rate was affected by potential respondents moving from listed addresses.

Variables investigated were: perceptions of the job loss, coping strategies, and reactions to job loss. A Likert scale and alpha coefficients were used to measure job loss perceptions. Four-point frequency scales were used to measure two classes of coping strategies. Reactions to job loss were measured using a variety of instruments.

Results

Women and married respondents were significantly more likely to perceive job loss as externally caused. Single respondents perceived the job loss as significantly more intense. No significant differences between men and women were found in perceptions of intensity or reversibility. Women were significantly less likely to follow up on job leads, less willing to relocate to find new jobs, significantly more likely to talk to friends about problems, and coped by alleviating stress symptoms. Men coped by solving unemployment problems. Marital status did not strongly affect coping strategies. No significant differences were found in men and women's reactions to job loss. Significantly more psychological and behavioral distress and lower life satisfaction were reported by single respondents.

Discussion No significant differences in women and men's reactions to job loss were found. The difference is in how they coped with the job loss. The male respondents tended to be more problem focused. They focused on the source of the problem and put their energy into resolution. The women respondents, on the other hand, were more symptom focused. They spend more energy on talking about the situation and relying on their social support system. Being married, however, seems to have the same buffering effect for both sexes.

Leana, C. R., & Ivancevich, J. M. (1987). Involuntary job loss: Institutional interventions and a research agenda. Academy of Management Review, 12(2), 301-312.

Purpose

This paper focuses on efforts by government, labor, management, and researchers to understand and address the problem of involuntary job loss. This article describes the adverse effects of job loss; the responses by government, unions, and organizations; suggestions for job loss research; and the managerial implications of this research.

Description Effects of Job Loss. A review of the job loss literature reveals that job loss effects include threats to the individual's psychological well-being, physiological well-being, and family relations. The negative effects are not the same, however, for every terminated worker. Research has identified some moderating factors: gender, financial position, social support, length of employment, previous employment, educational level, perceptions of causal attribution, and previous occupational class.

> Responses to Job Loss. Responses by the federal government have taken the form of financial incentives and legislative mandates through programs and bills such as: the Manpower Training and Development Act, the National Alliance of Business, the Job Training Partnership Act, and the National Employment Priorities Act. Some states have responded with measures that include: limitations on the terminator-at-will doctrine, requiring prenotification before plant shut-downs, and increasing unemployment insurance benefit payments.

> Labor unions have used collective bargaining to include contract provisions such as: advance notification of plant closings, union participation in the closing process, employment security, and the release of company performance data and future plans that would affect member job security. Responses by organizations include: prenotification of plant shutdowns and layoffs, outplacement counseling, and retraining programs.

> A Job Loss Research Agenda The body of job loss research includes very few longitudinal studies, particularly on female and minority groups. Other research areas suggested include: individual and family responses (micro level), intervention effects, mediating factors, individual coping styles, and interdisciplinary research.

> Managerial Implications. Because job loss is expected to continue as a problem, management has a need to respond effectively. Job loss research can provide managers with information to help them choose intervention methods. The types of research information useful in making these choices are: job loss effects on the individual and family, factors that moderate the relationship between job loss and these adverse effects, and effective types of responses.



Mallinckrodt, B. (1990). Satisfaction with a new job after unemployment:

Consequences of job loss for older professionals. <u>Journal of Counseling Psychology</u>, <u>37(2)</u>, 149-152.

Purpose To study satisfaction with new jobs obtained by older professional workers after a period of unemployment.

Participants Participants were 24 members of a self-help group for 18 male and six female unemployed professionals over the age of 40.

Method Thirty-five participants were surveyed shortly after joining the self-help group (Time 1). One year later (Time 2), surveys were mailed to the 28 participants who provided home addresses. Multiple mailings were used to improve the return rate. The survey packet at Time 1 contained: the Beck Depression Inventory, the Rotter Locus of Control Scale, the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale, and author-developed measures of job-seeking behaviors and financial concerns. The survey packet at Time 2 contained: employment status, a Likert rating of satisfaction with the total benefits package in previous and current positions, and the Job Description Index.

Results

Time 2, 16 (67%) participants were reemployed and 8 (33%) were still searching for jobs. The 16 reemployed participants were: unemployed an average of 10.5 months; significantly less satisfied with the total benefits package in their new job; more satisfied with the supervision, work, and promotion prospects in their new job; and equally satisfied with co-workers. Age, positive self-esteem, and internal locus of control at Time 1 were positively correlated with job satisfaction after reemployment.

Discussion

This study suggests that older professionals may have serious problems with continuing unemployment and reduced income after unemployment.

Satisfaction with some aspects of their job (supervision, work, and promotion prospects), however, may improve. Positive self-esteem and internal locus of control may help in finding more satisfying new job positions. This study had some methodological problems which limit its generalizability. The author encourages further research.

McKnight, R. (1991). Creating the future after job loss. <u>Training & Development Journal</u>. November. 69-72.

Purpose

To suggest ways organizations can help displaced workers cope with job loss and make a successful transition back into the workforce.

Description

The article suggested that we recognize the psychology of job loss. That more than a job is lost -- there is los of: income, identity, structure and routine, and a way to make a difference. There is profound stress, a severe challenge to the psyche, scattered energy, and debiling thoughts.

It further suggests that we recognize employee reaction types: victims -- panic, powerless, think the worst, fight or flight, open hostility or acting frightened or depressed, substance abuse, sickness, absenteeism; survivors -- fighting spirit, burn-out, denial, psychosomatic disease; navigators -- admit the pain, let go of the past, manage stress, determine next steps to take, and get on with it.

We should teach employees to manage stress by encouraging them to: take the future into their own hands and not be dependent on the company as a parent; create changes of their own rather than being subjected to the changes of others (take action); have a positive attitude and make choices about their behavior.

Creating programs that address the needs of the employees is another way to help. Some ways we can do that are to: acknowledge their feelings; identify what they are leaving behind and taking with them; identify three ways to manage change -- one positive and two not so positive; understanding the different phases of change and identify the one they are in, pointing out strategies for dealing with each phase; understanding the different phases of change and identify the one they are in, pointing out strategies for dealing with each phase; develop a clear picture of their desired futures; and create individual action plans to implement those pictures.

We should train employees after job loss so that we: communicate the importance of the program, make the program fun, encourage sharing and release, identify behaviors, and empathize with their situation.

A one-day training program, Managing Your Future, created to help laid-off employees deal with job loss stress, had the following results:

- employees began to speak more positively about their futures; tension and hostility among employees began to subside.
- employees could identify self-defeating behavior and labelling it as "victim talk."
- a feeling of "being in it together" was cultivated among employees; many had turned their anger toward each other and the company before the program.
- employees saw the layoffs as opportunities to pursue lifelong dreams.



• many employees who were undecided about participating in the retraining program, signed up.

• some older employees decided to retire and the program helped them implement their retirement dreams.

The article suggests that job search skills and resume writing workshops will fall short of their expected mark if no opportunity is provided for displaced workers to vent their feelings. No forward progress will be made vithout getting people to let go of the negative emotions and recognize that they are in a bad situation but they are not "bad people." They are employable and have transferable skills to offer to other employers.

The article further suggests that communication of the importance of the program and making it fun, are essential to its success. It is also important to use staff with keen sensitivity to the special needs of displaced workers.



Merriam, S. B. (1987). Young, middle, and preretirement adults' experience with retraining after job loss. <u>Educational Gerontology</u>, <u>13</u>, 249-262.

Purpose To study the relationship between life stage and experiences with retraining after job loss.

Participants Participants were 233 dislocated workers between the ages of 20 and 65, in Job Training Partnership Act (JTPA) programs in Illinois.

Method Twelve adults were interviewed in depth to develop a questionnaire that was distributed in class and returned by mail. Independent variables were life stage, sex, and education. Sixteen items from the questionnaire were chosen as dependent variables.

For 6 of the 16 dependent variables, a significant difference was found with regard to life stage. Middle-aged respondents differed from either or both the younger and preretirement grounds as follows: they were more afraid they would not be able to do the work, felt they were too old, found the program more difficult than expected, disagreed that it was easier than expected, and disagreed (mid-life women only) that they learn more easily now. On one item, "material is more meaningful now," preretirement adults differed significantly from the other age groups in agreeing with the statement.

Discussion These findings, though modest, offer some support for the notion that interpreting a life experience, such as returning to school, is at least partially a function of life stage.

Morin, W. J. (1977, May). Outplacement counseling: What is it? <u>Personnel and Guidance Journal</u>, pp. 553-555.

Purpose To suggest strategies that companies can implement to help terminated employees.

Description Suggested Strategies

- Develop a well defined termination policy and offer training and guidance to managers who terminate employees.
- Provide a support package for the terminated employee which contains:
 - severance pay
 - job reference
 - internal or external outplacement counseling
 - job search training
 - secretarial support and telephone services.
- Develop outplacement counselors or select an outplacement consulting firm. The author discusses development considerations and selection criteria.
- Overhaul termination and severance policies. The author suggests an approach.

Benefits of Strategies

- · Less risk of illegal practice and lawsuits
- Better corporate image
- Shorter severance payments
- · Better management of human resources.



Podgursky, M., and Swaim, P., (1987). Job displacement and earnings loss: evidence from the displaced worker survey. <u>Industrial and Labor Relations Review</u>. October 41(1), 17-29

Purpose To describe the extent of the displacement problem in terms of earnings, at the national level.

Participants In January 1984, roughly 60,000 respondents to the Current Population Survey (CPS), aged 20 and over, were asked if they become displaced from a job. Of those responding affirmatively, a sample of full-time workers between the ages of 20 and 61 was chosen.

Method The researchers used self-reported historical data gathered from the January 1984 CPS to determine characteristics of the sample, and social security data to track earnings over the period studied. The researchers attempted to describe the extent of earnings losses due to displacement.

Results Earnings prior to displacement were a very good predictor of reemployment earnings. Also, higher earnings prior to displacement were associated with proportionately higher losses. Displacement produced a regression to the mean. Education significantly increased post-displacement earnings. Greater tenure on the old job significantly increased earnings loss for blue-collar men, while greater portability of general skills created smaller earnings losses. The findings suggest that relatively greater investments in specific human capital lead to larger earnings losses.

Median earnings losses for those who returned to full-time work were modest: less than 10% for blue-collar workers and less than 5% for white-collar and service workers.

A number of personal and labor market characteristics are significantly related to expected earnings losses. Greater general education significantly reduces earnings losses and increases the likelihood of full-time reemployment. The incidence of displacement in the survey suggest that narrow vocational training is a risky investment. High regional unemployment rates reduce reemployment probability and lower reemployment earnings. A poor macroeconomic environment makes labor market adjustment for displaced workers more difficult.

Discussion

Romero, G. J., Castro, F. G., & Cervantes, R. C. (1988). Latinas without work: Family, occupational, and economic stress following unemployment. Psychology of Women Quarterly, 12, 281-297.

Purpose

To examine family, occupational, and economic domains of stress among 114 displaced Latina cannery workers in California.

Participants Participants were 114 women displaced at least 18 months from Starkist Tuna in Wilmington, California.

Method

The 114 women were obtained by sending letters and calling displaced employees and posting announcements in the community. The sample was reduced by: non-deliverable letters, ineligibility based on selected criteria, suspicion of intent of the study, and relocation to find other jobs. Data collection sessions were conducted using a questionnaire at a local Catholic Church over a three-month period. The questionnaire contained 11 sections which examined, using a Likert scale, the impacts job displacement had on the participant's life. Three domains of stress were examined: family, occupational. and economic.

Results

Events from all three domains-family, occupational, and economic--were considered stressful. The women rated events from the occupational domain as the most stressful overall. The largest number of women experienced the events from the economic domain. Women who had lived in the United States more years and had worked fewer years at the plant reported a higher level of family stress. Women who had lived longer in the United States and had less seniority and less disposable income reported the highest level of economic stress.

Discussion

The results of this study indicate that Latinas are stressed by unemployment in many ways. Occupational stress is the highest. Both the displaced worker and her family are impacted by the unemployment. Women who had lived longer in the United Sates and had incurred more financial obligations experienced higher levels of economic stress. These findings may help to dispel the myth of "benign stress" associated with female and minority job losers. Further research concerning these populations is needed.



Schlossberg, N. K., & Leibowitz, Z. (1980). Organizational support systems as buffers to job loss. Journal of Vocation Behavior, 17, 204-217.

To identify some of the factors that facilitate adaptation to job loss. Purpose

Participants Fifty-three men whose jobs were eliminated due to a reduction in the labor force (RIF) at the National Aeronautics and Space Administration's Goddard Space Flight Center.

A questionnaire was mailed the entire group three months after the RIF. In-Method depth interviews were conducted on eight men (a 15% sample) after the RIF was announced and six months later. The framework for data collection was a job loss transition model with three sets of variables: characteristics of the transition, characteristics of the support systems, and characteristics of the individual.

> Characteristics of the transition were: (1) onset was sudden (unexpected); (2) source is external (forced upon individual from outside); (3) timing is off-time (not appropriate in life event timetable); (4) duration is temporary; (5) affect is both positive and negative; and (6) stress is considerable.

Characteristics of the support systems were: (1) intimate family relationships are moderate; (2) network of friends is moderate; and (3) institutional support is high.

Characteristics of the individual were: (1) outlook is favorable/optimistic; (2) initiative is fairly high; (3) coping orientation is active; (4) responsibility is taken by the individual; and (5) prior job loss experience is little to none.

Adaptation stages were: disbelief, sense of betrayal, confusion, anger, and resolution. The impact on the survivors of the RIF was mitigated by their knowledge of the organization's social consciousness and commitment to helping the terminated employees.

The impact on the survivors of the RIF was mitigated by their knowledge of the Discussion organization's social consciousness and commitment to helping the terminated employees. One of the most effective buffers against the trauma of job loss was a formal support system introduced by the organization.

Results

Steinweg, D. A. (1990). Implications of current research for counseling the unemployed.

<u>Journal of Employment Counseling</u>, 27, 37-41.

Purpose To suggest six strategies counselors can use to help unemployed workers.

Description Suggested Strategies

- Encourage a broad-based sense of self-esteem. Emphasize both work and non-work bases of self-esteem.
- Help maintain pre-unemployment levels of activity and daily structure. Encourage clients to fill their time with meaningful activities.
- Develop social-support networks. Encourage client to join social organizations or support groups where they can express their feelings.
- Encourage external causal attributions for unemployed status. Help client acknowledge external causes for job loss and validate their thoughts and feelings.
- Establish links with community resources. Provide service information and refer when appropriate.
- Make referrals to vocational rehabilitation programs.

These suggestions can be used to develop interventions that help the unemployed cope, grow personally, and develop their careers. Future research is needed to investigate processes that mediate the effects of job loss.



Swinburne, P. (1981). The psychological impact of unemployment on managers and professional staff. <u>Journal of Occupational Psychology</u>, <u>54</u>, 47-64.

Purpose To investigate the individual psychological impact of unemployment and range of reactions of a sample of unemployed managers and professional staff.

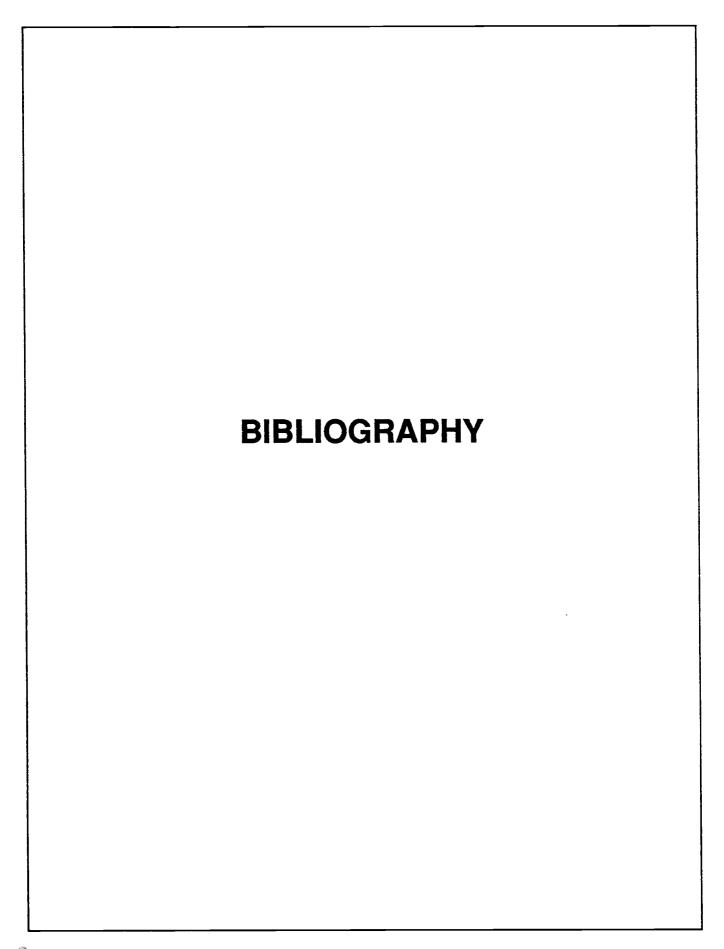
Participants A sample of 20 men were selected from courses for unemployed managers and professional staff.

Method Semi-structured, in depth interviews were tape recorded and transcribed. Three broad areas were studied: feelings about becoming unemployed, the process of structuring time, and the job search process. Digression was allowed to capture subjective experiences and interpretations. Validity of data and rapport were encouraged through counseling sessions the week before the interviews.

Results

Reactions, overall, tentatively supported previously reported phasic reactions to unemployment. Participants, however, appeared to pass through the phases more slowly. Fifty-five % of the participants saw some beneficial aspects of unemployment. The effect of the family on feelings was varied--with the majority of spouses providing support and understanding, but some evidence of strain in many cases. A low degree of control over loss of job increased the negative effects of initial reactions. Nineteen out of 20 men stressed the importance of activity to ward off the negative effects of unemployment. Sixty-five % of the men started their job search immediately after termination. The remaining 35 % delayed their search for various reasons. All of the participants chose to search for the right job and maintain a given level of salary and job quality standards. Seventy-five % of the participants reported constraints on job mobility.

Most previous studies on the psychological impacts of unemployment have examined blue-collar workers. The results of this study shows these white-collar workers passing, somewhat faster, through the same phases of reactions. This study suggests the men were aware of the feelings associated with unemployment and consciously fought these effects. Factors that appear to be related to the delay in impact are: job-related factors, such as administrative involvement and legal proceedings; financial cushioning factors; the contemporary level of unemployment; and the relative reduction in the stigma of unemployment. The authors encourage further research to study the psychological impact of unemployment and variables that mediate these effects.





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